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ABSTRACT

Small footprints, low power consumption, and high operating speeds are some of the desirable attributes of future chip-scale photonic integrated circuits (PIC). This has fueled some of the recent activities in developing nanolasers as one of the key components of such integrated systems. To overcome the challenges facing laser miniaturization, drastically new designs based on metallic nano-cavities have been pursued. Along these lines, optically pumped nanolasers based on a metallic coaxial architecture, as well as electrically pumped nanolasers utilizing metallo-dielectric structures were demonstrated in the past. In the course of this STIR project, the PIs performed a feasibility study for developing electrically pumped coaxial nano-lasers that could be effectively coupled to a silicon interconnect via a plasmonic waveguide section. To this end, lasing has been demonstrated in coaxial nanolasers fabricated on wafers capable of becoming electrically pumped. A rate equation model is developed to calculate the lasing threshold as well as the highest possible speed for such devices under optical pumping. Effort also has been directed towards accurately measuring the second order coherence function of optically pumped nanolasers.

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- 1- W. Hayenga, M. Khajavikhan, "Rate Equation Analysis of High-Speed Nanolasers", SPIE Photonics West San Francisco CA (2015)
- 2- H. Hodaei, M. A. Miri, M. Heinrich, D. Christodoulides, M. Khajavikhan, "PT-symmetric microring lasers", SPIE Photonics West San Francisco CA (2015)
- 3-M. Khajavikhan, "Metallic and Metallo-Dielectric Coaxial Nanolasers", IEEE Summer Topicals, Bahamas (2015)

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Received	<u>Paper</u>
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<u>NAME</u>	PERCENT_SUPPORTED	National Academy Member
Mercedeh Khajavikhan	0.00	
Patrick Likamwa	0.00	
FTE Equivalent:	0.00	
Total Number:	2	

Names of Under Graduate students supported

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Small footprints, low power consumption, and high operating speeds are some of the desirable attributes of future chip-scale photonic integrated circuits (PIC) [1]. This has fueled some of the recent activities in developing nanolasers as one of the key components of such integrated systems. To overcome the challenges facing laser miniaturization, drastically new designs based on metallic nano-cavities have been pursued [2-14]. Along these lines, optically pumped nanolasers based on a metallic coaxial architecture [13], as well as electrically pumped nanolasers utilizing metallo-dielectric structures were demonstrated in the past [11]. In the course of this STIR project, the PIs performed a feasibility study for developing electrically pumped coaxial nano-lasers that could be effectively coupled to a silicon interconnect via a plasmonic waveguide section. To this end, lasing has been demonstrated in coaxial nanolasers fabricated on wafers capable of becoming electrically pumped. A rate equation model is developed to calculate the lasing threshold as well as the highest possible speed for such devices under optical pumping. Effort also has been directed towards accurately measuring the second order coherence function of optically pumped nanolasers.

Rate equation model

Due to plasmonic properties of metals at optical frequencies, metallic cavities can support highly confined sub-wavelength modes. Such ultra-small mode volumes, unique to this family of resonators, has important ramifications in nanolaser design in several aspects including high mode confinement (Γ), large Purcell factor (Γ), and under certain circumstances, close to unity spontaneous emission coupling factor (Γ). The role of these parameters in improving the frequency response as well as in reducing the lasing threshold, despite the inherent lossy nature of metallic cavities, can be explained through the following rate equations representing the laser dynamics,

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dn_p}{dt} = \frac{F}{\tau_{sp}} \left(\frac{\Gamma \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\epsilon}{V_{eff}} n_p} n_p + \Gamma \beta \right) n_c - \frac{n_p}{\tau_p} \\ \frac{dn_c}{dt} = \frac{I}{e} - \frac{F}{\tau_{sp}} \left(\frac{\gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\epsilon}{V_{eff}} n_p} n_p + 1 \right) n_c - \frac{n_c}{\tau_{nr}} \end{cases}$$
(Eq. 1).

In the above coupled system of equations, n_c and n_p are the total number of electron-hole pairs in the active region and photons in the lasing mode respectively, τ_{sp} is the bulk upper state lifetime, τ_{nr} is the non-radiative lifetime, τ_p is the photon lifetime of the cavity, $\gamma \cong f_c(1-f_v)/(f_c-f_v)$, where f_c and f_v are the Fermi-Dirac function in the conduction and valence bands, respectively, I is the injection current, e is the charge of the electron, and e is the gain suppression coefficient. The Purcell factor (F) is defined as the ratio of the rate of spontaneous emission in bulk to cavity and is given by $(3/4\pi^2)(\lambda_c/n)^3 (\min\{Q,Q_h\}/(V_{eff}))$, where Q_h is the quality factor representing the homogenous linewidth of the gain material and Q is the quality factor of the cavity, and V_{eff} is the mode volume. The spontaneous emission coupling factor β is defined as the ratio of spontaneous emission into the lasing mode to the total spontaneous emission [15-19].

It should be noted that the above treatment departs from some of the recently published rate equation models for nanolasers. For example, in some of the previous works the effect of mode confinement is ignored (needless to emphasize high mode confinement is one of the key features of metal-cavity lasers), and in some others the effect of the cavity in modifying the stimulated emission is neglected (the Purcell factor is only applied to spontaneous emission, therefore more

stringent pumping and quality factors were falsely required for stimulated emission to become the dominant photon generating process) [20,21].

From the above rate equations, the relaxation oscillation frequency and the damping coefficient can be obtained by differentiating the steady state to find $\mathcal{H}(v) = v_r^2/(v_r^2 - v^2 - i\zeta v)$ (the normalized modulation transfer function) in which v_r is the relaxation oscillation frequency and ζ is the damping coefficient.

$$\nu_{r} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \begin{cases} \left[\frac{F}{\tau_{sp}} \frac{\gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} \frac{n_{po} n_{co}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} + 1 \right) \right] \left(\frac{n_{po} \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} + \frac{F \Gamma \beta}{\tau_{sp}} \right) \\ + \left[\frac{1}{\tau_{p}} - \frac{F \Gamma}{\tau_{sp}} \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} \frac{n_{co} \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} \left(\frac{n_{po}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} - 1 \right) \right] \left[\frac{F}{\tau_{sp}} \left(\frac{n_{po} \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} + 1 \right) + \frac{1}{\tau_{nr}} \right] \end{cases}$$

$$\zeta = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left\{ \left[\frac{F}{\tau_{sp}} \left(\frac{n_{po} \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} + 1 \right) + \frac{1}{\tau_{nr}} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{\tau_{p}} - \frac{F \Gamma}{\tau_{sp}} \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} \frac{n_{co} \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} \left(\frac{n_{po} \gamma^{-1}}{1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{po}} + 1 \right) \right] \right\}$$

$$(Eq. 2)$$

The modulation bandwidth $v_{FWHM} = sqrt((\sqrt{4v_r^4 + \zeta^4} - \zeta^2)/2)$ will then be found by setting $\Re\{\mathcal{H}(v)\} = 1/2$. In Fig. 1a and b the modulation bandwidth is plotted as a function of injection current for several cavity sizes and quality factors. As can be seen, unprecedentedly larger bandwidths are within reach using metallic arrangements with ultra-small mode volumespotentially eliminating the need for independent on-chip modulators.

The above analysis not only confirms what has been conjectured about the large modulation bandwidth of nanolasers, but also shows the extent of it. In particular it shows how cavity parameters (quality factor and volume) affect the bandwidth. From this analysis, it is clear that as expected lowering Q and reducing the volume will enhance the modulation response of nanolasers.

The question that remained to be addressed here is whether or not the lasing is achieved under such low pump powers in the metallic cavities with low quality factors and small mode volumes [15-22]. From the rate equations in (1), under steady state conditions, the carrier density as well as the photon density in the lasing mode as a function of the steady state current (I_0) are expressed by:

$$n_{c_o} = \frac{n_{p_o} \tau_{sp} (1 + \frac{\epsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{p_o})}{\tau_p F \Gamma n_{p_o} \gamma^{-1} + \beta (1 + \frac{\epsilon}{V_{eff}} n_{p_o})}$$

$$n_{p_o} = \frac{1}{2(F \tau_{nr} (V_{eff} + \gamma \epsilon) + \gamma \epsilon \tau_{sp})} \{ -(V_{eff} \gamma (F \tau_{nr} + \tau_{sp}) - F \frac{I_o}{e} \Gamma \tau_{nr} \tau_p (V_{eff} + \beta \gamma \epsilon)) + \sqrt{(V_{eff} \gamma (F \tau_{nr} + \tau_{sp}) - F \frac{I_o}{e} \Gamma \tau_{nr} \tau_p (V_{eff} + \beta \gamma \epsilon))^2 + 4F \frac{I_o}{e} V_{eff} \beta \gamma \Gamma \tau_{nr} \tau_p (F \tau_{nr} (V_{eff} + \gamma \epsilon) + \gamma \epsilon \tau_{sp})) \}}$$
(Eq.3)

In order to discern the lasing threshold, where the stimulated emission overcomes the spontaneous emission, The first equation in (1) has been broken up into the part accountable for the stimulated emission $(\frac{F}{\tau_{sp}}\Gamma\gamma^{-1}(1+\frac{\epsilon}{V_{eff}}n_{p_o})^{-1}n_{p_o}n_{c_o})$, and the part representing the spontaneous emission $(\frac{F}{\tau_{sp}}\Gamma\beta n_{c_o})$. Figure 2 shows the combinations of the spontaneous power and the stimulated emitted power for varying cavity sizes and quality factors. This simple analysis clearly shows that lossy metal cavities with smaller mode volumes are in fact capable of sustaining lasing oscillations despite their considerably lower quality factors. However as the loss increases above a certain value, the smaller mode volume no longer lowers threshold.

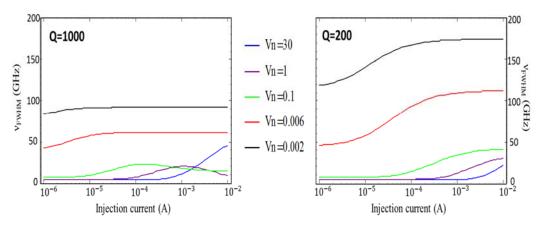


Figure 2 a) the modulation response is plotted for a Q of 1000 and the response is plotted for various cavity sizes. It is seen that as the cavity size decreases that the modulation response increases, 9b) displays the modulation response with a Q=200, resulting in an increased modulation bandwidth. The following parameters were used when calculating the plots: $\lambda_0=1542$ nm, n=3.4, $\tau_{nr}=40$ ps, $\tau_{sp}=4$ ns, $\gamma=4$, $\tau_p=Q/(2\pi c/\lambda_0)$, $\Gamma=0.2$, $V_n=V_{eff}/(\lambda/2n)^3$, $\beta=0.41$, and $\epsilon=2.3e-23$ m³.

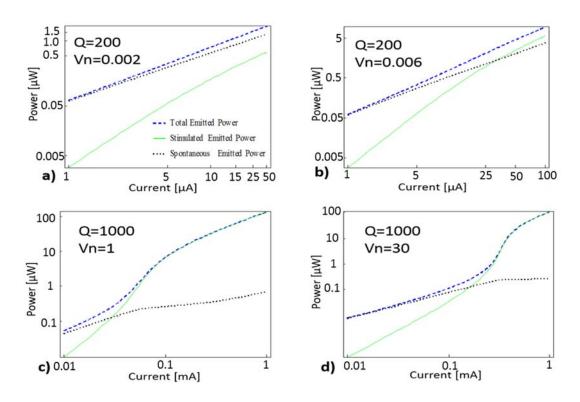


Figure 1 (a) Q=200 and V_n =0.002. Due to the small cavity size, the spontaneous emission is always larger than the stimulated emission and the device will not lase. (b) The cavity size is increased to V_n =0.006, while Q=200, resulting in stimulated emission overcoming the spontaneous emission. (c) The cavity size and the quality factory are both increased to Q=1000 and V_n =1. The increase in V_n causes the threshold to increase, while the increase in the quality factor causes the threshold to decrease, consequentially the lasing threshold is comparable to the device in plot (b). (d) Here Q=1000 and V_n =30. The increase in the cavity size while keeping Q the same as that in plot (c) clearly demonstrates the importance of cavity size on lowering the lasing threshold.

Optically pumped coaxial nanolaser using a wafer designed for electrical pumping

The feasibility of electrically pumped (EP) nanoscale coaxial lasers is examined by testing such lasers under optical pumping. Figure 3 shows the specs of the EP wafer, and the resulting emission spectra from a coaxial structure with an inner radius of a 100 nm and an outer radius of a 300 nm. The total thickness of the semiconductor part of the structure is 475 nm [23].

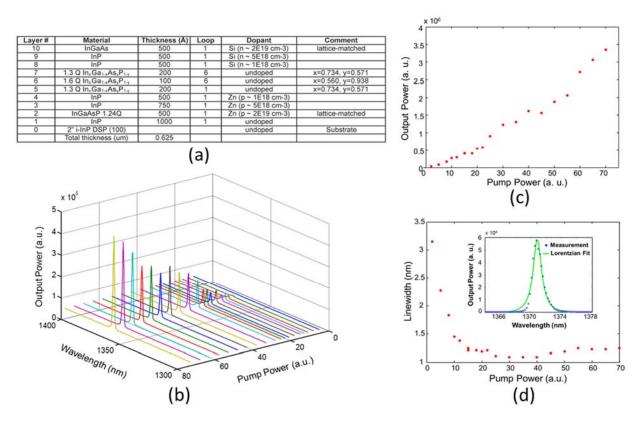


Figure 3 (a) layer specification of the wafer designed and epitaxially grown for fabricating electrically pumped coaxial nanolasers. (b) the spectral evolution of the emitted radiation from a coaxial structure with an inner radius of a 100 nm, an outer radius of a 300 nm, and the total height of 475 nm, (c) the output power and (d) the linewidth vs. the pump power. The inset in (d) shows the Lorentzian fit to the measured data.

Second-order coherence (g⁽²⁾) measurement

A $g^{(2)}$ measurement capability is established at CREOL for characterizing nanoscale lasers operating at 900 nm to 1700 nm wavelength regime. The $g^{(2)}$ measurement can unambiguously determine the nature of the emitted light (chaotic, coherent, or quantum). In addition, it provides an in-depth understanding of the mechanisms leading to light generation in such nanoscale cavities. This knowledge in turn may be used to design more efficient light sources. Figure 4a depicts the schematic of the $g^{(2)}$ set-up integrated with the micro-photo-luminescence measurement station [24-25].

The above set-up has been used to characterize a number of nanoscale light sources based on disks of different radii covered with metallic claddings. The metal-clad disk cavity is selected because it generates relatively high power (in some cases larger than 50 μ W of power is collected using a power meter). The metallic cladding and the removal of the dielectric shield were also instrumental in operating these nanolasers under CW optical pumping. Figure 5 shows the $g^{(2)}$ measurement result for a nanolaser of a radius of 700 nm, along with light-light and

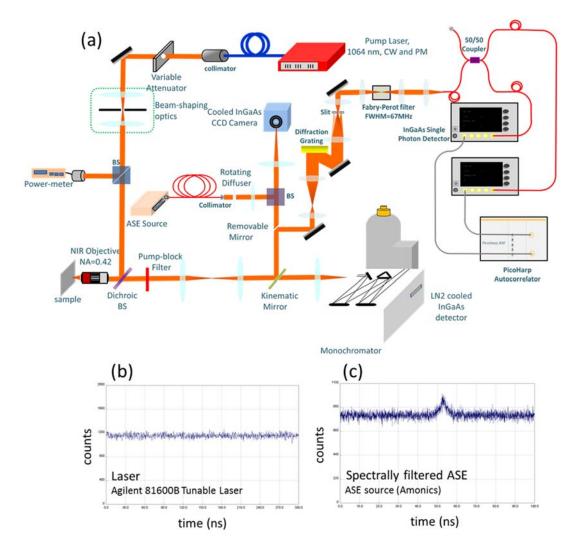


Figure 4 (a) Schematic of the $g^{(2)}$ set-up integrated in the micro-photo-luminescence measurement station. (b) The second-order correlation measurement of an Agilent 81600B Tunable laser and (c) a spectrally filtered ASE source. The ASE source has a clear peak at $g^{(2)}(0)$ (corresponding to 57 ns), a result of chaotic light, while the laser displays no marked features.

linewidth characterization. While the logarithmic light-light curve clearly shows an S-shape, the linewidth slowly increases above threshold and so does the maximum of the g⁽²⁾ value at zero time delay (corresponding to 50 ns in Fig. 5c).

It should be noted that even though each of the single photon counters require less than 50 Kcount/s (corresponding to a power 1.6e-14 Watt), several issues have prevented from measuring $g^{(2)}$ below lasing threshold (especially at PL regime):

- 1) Mode profile mismatch between the nanolasers (collected with a high numerical aperture objective) and the single mode fiber.
- 2) Low detection efficiency of single photon counters and high dark counts level (1Kc/s to 2Kc/s at 5% efficiency and 20µs dead-time)

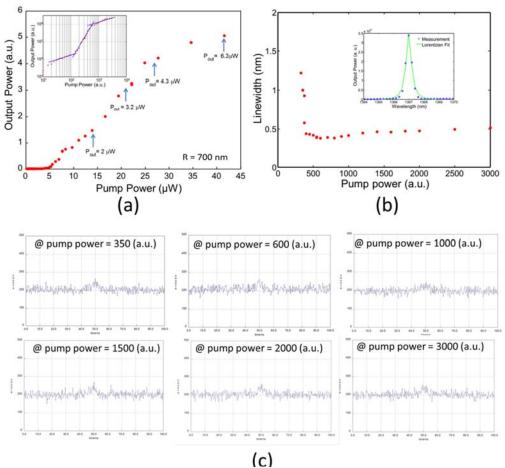


Figure 5 (a) light-light curve and (b) linewidth vs. pump power for a metal-clad disk structure with a radius of 700 nm. In (c) the $g^{(2)}$ measurement result is provided at different pump power levels corresponding to points in ASE and lasing sections of light-light curve. All $g^{(2)}$ measurements are performed under CW pumping and at the count rate of 25Kc/s. The first channel has an offset of -50 ns. The inset in (a) and (b) shows the light-light curve in the log-log scale and the Lorentzian fit to the measured linewidth, respectively

3) The low timing resolution (200 ps) of the single photon counters and the large emission linewidth of nanolasers (approximately 1 nm that should be externally narrowed down to 0.0005 nm, this results in a \sim 15 ns coherence time).

Some of these issues will be automatically resolved by moving to a wavelength of ~980 nm where silicon based single photon counters (low dark count and short timing resolution) can be utilized We are also currently in negotiation with ID Quantique (http://www.idquantique.com/) to exchange our single photon counters (ID210) with their new model which has lower dark count and higher efficiency (ID220).

The observed fluctuation can also indicate excess relative intensity noise (RIN) generated by the fluctuations of the pump power as well as the mechanical vibrations in the set-up. More accurate G^2 measurement will become possible once the electrically pumped nanolasers are developed using low noise current sources.

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